A PROCESS FOR DEVELOPMENT OF A LEADERSHIP AND MANAGEMENT PROGRAM FOR IMPERIAL IRANIAN NAVY JUNIOR OFFICERS

Alireza Eshghi

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THESIS

A PROCESS FOR DEVELOPMENT OF
A LEADERSHIP AND MANAGEMENT PROGRAM
FOR IMPERIAL IRANIAN NAVY JUNIOR OFFICERS

by

Alireza Eshghi

June 1977

Thesis Advisor: R. A. McGonigal

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T179913

SECURITY CLASSIFICATION OF THIS PAGE (When Data Entered)

REPORT DOCUMENTATION PAGE		READ INSTRUCTIONS BEFORE COMPLETING FORM
1. REPORT NUMBER	2. GOVT ACCESSION NO.	3. RECIPIENT'S CATALOG NUMBER
4. TITLE (and Subtitle) A Process for Development of a Leadership and Management Program for Imperial Iranian Navy Junior Officers		5. TYPE OF REPORT & PERIOD COVERED Master's Thesis; June 1977 6. PERFORMING ORG. REPORT NUMBER
7. AUTHOR(s) Alireza Eshghi		8. CONTRACT OR GRANT NUMBER(s)
9. PERFORMING ORGANIZATION NAME AND ADDRESS Naval Postgraduate School Monterey, California 93940		10. PROGRAM ELEMENT, PROJECT, TASK AREA & WORK UNIT NUMBERS
11. CONTROLLING OFFICE NAME AND ADDRESS Naval Postgraduate School Monterey, California 93940		12. REPORT DATE June 1977 13. NUMBER OF PAGES
14. MONITORING AGENCY NAME & ADDRESS(if different from Controlling Office) Naval Postgraduate School Monterey, California 93940		15. SECURITY CLASS. (of this report) Unclassified 15a. DECLASSIFICATION/DOWNGRADING SCHEDULE

16. DISTRIBUTION STATEMENT (of this Report)

Approved for public release; distribution unlimited.

17. DISTRIBUTION STATEMENT (of the abstract entered in Block 20, if different from Report)

18. SUPPLEMENTARY NOTES

19. KEY WORDS (Continue on reverse side if necessary and identify by block number)

20. ABSTRACT (Continue on reverse side if necessary and identify by block number)

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DD FORM 1 JAN 73 1473 EDITION OF 1 NOV 68 IS OBSOLETE
S/N 0102-014-6601 |

SECURITY CLASSIFICATION OF THIS PAGE (When Data Entered)

20. Abstract (Cont'd)

selection and training evaluation.

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A Process for Development of a Leadership and Management Program for Imperial Iranian Navy Junior Officers

by

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Commander, Imperial Iranian Navy
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Submitted in partial fulfillment of
the requirements for the degree of

MASTER OF SCIENCE IN MANAGEMENT

from the

NAVAL POSTGRADUATE SCHOOL

June 1977

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Abstract

Definitions of leadership and management are discussed in reference to Iranian culture. A feasible, systematic process is proposed for the development of a formal management education program for Imperial Iranian junior naval officers with concentration upon needs assessment, instructor selection and training evaluation.

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I. INTRODUCTION

There was a time when management assumed that qualified managers could be found in an organization when needed and that good men invariably would rise to the top. In fact, there are some who still adhere to this principle. They believe that formal programs for the systematic development of manager personnel are uneconomical and a waste of time, money, and effort. In industry as a whole, however, there is a growing awareness that management can no longer afford to make such assumptions, and management authorities feel that probably the greatest problem facing management today is that of finding, developing, and retaining capable people to assume leadership roles. Men and women with the ability to think and act responsibly, to work cooperatively and to provide others the opportunity to become effective leaders are not always recruited. They must be developed.

This thesis is concerned with the development of management skills by training, but it will be meaningless to speak about training for development of management skills unless the following questions are answered.

1. What is management? If it is not clear, what are the nature and principles of management, how can it be taught?
2. Are the management principles transferable to other countries with different cultures?
3. Can training improve the management?

WHAT IS MANAGEMENT?

If we consider management a profession, then it follows that we should be able to define what a manager is. Only if we know what a manager is can we address principles that are applicable to the act of managing.[1] Because of the varying nature of organizations, our definition may have many interpretations. The statement that "Management is what a manager does" seems to make sense until the variation in the kind of work done by many managers is observed. Definition and interpretations of management vary widely. Some see management as a combination of personal and administrative skills. Some see it as a technique of leadership. Others define it as a means of coordination and cooperation.[2] These definitions are not enough for our needs. For our purpose we must be able to identify management as an amount of knowledge and skill based on some general principles, which can be verified in terms of organization practice. We should be able to see management as a distinct activity for an organization which can be improved and developed.

It has often been argued whether managing is an art or a science. Managing is an art, but so are engineering, medicine, accounting, and football. For art is the application of knowledge to reality with a view to accomplishing some concrete results, ordinarily with compromise, blend, or design, to get the best total results. As can be readily recognized, the best art

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1 Louis A. Allen, Management and Organization, McGraw-Hill Publishing Company, Inc. p. 3.

2 Loc. Cit. p. 5.

arises where the artist possesses a store of organized and applicable knowledge and understands how to apply it to reality.[3]

The task of management can be said to be an art. There is every reason to believe that it will succeed best if the practitioner has a store of applicable and organized knowledge to serve him. This knowledge, when organized, is science. When it is organized in such a way as to serve practice best, it becomes truly operational science. It is the job of management theory to act. Omans has said,

> "A classification provides a set of pigeonholes, a filing cabinet, in which facts can accumulate. For nothing is more lost than a loose fact. The empty folders of the file demand filling in time. The accumulation makes necessary a more economical filing system, with more cross references, and a new theory is born.[4]"

But even if the organized and applicable knowledge of a manager can be seen as science which will act through the theories and principles, the question still remains, what are these principles? This question cannot be answered unless it is clear what kind of organization we are speaking about, and what are the factors which have effect upon that organization. For a

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3 HAROLD KOONTZ, "The Importance of Distinguishing Between the Science and Art of Management", Academy of Management Journal, Volume 12, No. 4, December 1969, p. 420.

4 G. C. HOMANS, The Human Group, (New York: Harcourt, Brace, and World, 1950), p. 5.

specific organization, a design for the development of management will be meaningless without stating a concept, which should allow for the fact that some managers may manage with good or bad judgement, with great or little experience, with exemplary or undesirable character traits; that management may be practiced in similar terms by all kinds of people within that organization. Our concept of management should provide for the identification of skills that can be trained and developed.

IS MANAGEMENT CULTURE-BOUND?

As the subject of management is of wide interest in the world, the question whether or not management is a science with universal application has concerned scholars. It is generally recognized that effective management is the critical element in national growth and organizational success. But there is not general agreement that management is a real science explaining phenomena regardless of national and cultural environment. A considerable amount of difference has been expressed on the question whether management is culture-bound. Those who say management is culture-bound reason that since management practices differ and people and their cultural environments vary, management theory and principles that apply to a developed country are not applicable in different cultural environments. Even sometimes within the same national culture, some principles of management may apply to business, but not to the military or to Government, or even among different sizes of business or between businesses

in different industries. GONZALEZ and McMILLAN are among those who often state that management is culture-bound. They concluded, on the basis of two years study in Brazil, that American management experiences abroad provided evidence that their uniquely American philosophy of management is not universally applicable.[5]

It is true that Americans are generally credited with having the most advanced management competence.[6] But the question is: To what extent can American management principles, practices, and general know-how be transferred effectively to other countries at what cost, and to what degree and extent is the overall process and effectiveness of management constrained by cultural variables?[7]

Based on research in comparative management, it appears that management virtually everywhere performs the same basic managerial functions, if such functions are defined as planning and decision making, controlling, organizing, staffing, and direction or supervision. Of course, these can be broken down and classified into descriptive elements common to the management process. It also appears that firms everywhere operate either consciously or unconsciously with a common framework of policy decisions related to different organization functions, such as production, research and development, finance, procurement, personnel, and so forth. However, the specific ways and degree of effectiveness

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5 R. R. GONZALEZ and C. McMILLAN, JR, Journal of the Academy of Management, Volume 4, No. 1 (April 1961), p. 41.

6 HAROLD KOONTZ, "A Mode for Analyzing the Universality of Management", Academy of Management Journal, Volume 12, No. 4 (Dec. 1969), p. 418.

7 BARRY M. RECHMAN, "Significance of Cultural Variables", Academy of Management Journal, Volume 8, No. 4 (Dec. 1965), p. 294.

in which the overall management process tends to be performed by organizations in different countries differs very much in many cases. There appear to be some dominant patterns of managerial activity in various countries, especially among similar branches of the organizations. Does it mean that managers in different countries tend to perform their jobs differently because their way tends to be more effective, because they have different objectives, because certain cultural or other types of environment constraints (political, legal, economic) are operating on them, or because of ignorance or lack of interest in other more effective ways to manage? If it is revealed that the answer is ignorance or lack of interest, it means that their management is affected by various educations and/or sociological constraints. The above questions must be answered before considering with confidence that certain management practices are significantly constrained by certain cultural variables.

BARRY M. RICHMAN, in an article of significance, has mentioned the sociological and educational constraints (Table 1) in which he has tentatively classified various common elements of the overall management process (Table 2). He pointed out that the element of management process are essentially static. Managerial effectiveness is determined in large part by dynamic behavior factors or conditions operating within the organizations (Table 3).[8]

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8 BARRY M. RICHMAN, Academy of Management Journal, Volume 8, No. 4 (Dec. 1965), p. 296-300.

TABLE 1.[9]

SOCIOLOGICAL CONSTRAINTS

1. View toward business and its managers.
2. View toward authority and subordinate.
3. Inter-organizational copperation, which involves the interaction among business firms, labor unions, Government agencies, and educational institutions.
4. View of achievement.
5. Class structure and individual mobility.
6. View toward wealth and material gain.
7. View toward scientific method.
8. View toward risk-taking.
9. View toward change.

EDUCATIONAL CONSTRAINTS

1. Literacy level and primary education.
2. Specialized vocational and technical training and general secondary education.
3. Higher and advance education.
4. Special management training programs (not run by business firm).
5. Attitude toward education.
6. Education match with human requirement of productive enterprises.

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9 Loc. Cit. P. 297

TABLE 2.[10]

CLASSIFICATION OF VARIOUS COMMON ELEMENTS OF THE OVERALL MANAGEMENT PROCESS.

1. Methodologies, technique and tools used in training.
2. Time horizon of plan.
3. Degree to which the organization is mechanical (pre-programmed).
4. Type of performance and control standard used.
5. Degree of centralization and decentralization.
6. Degree of work specialization.
7. Spans of control.
8. Grouping of activities and departmentation.
9. Extent and use of committees.
10. Selection and promotion criteria used.
11. Nature and extent of formal company training program.
12. Degree of participative vs. authoritarian management.
13. Communication structure and technique.
14. Techniques used for motivating personnel.
15. Nature and extent of employee welfare services and facilities.

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10 Loc. Cit. p. 298

TABLE 3.

DYNAMIC BEHAVIOR FACTORS

1. Ease or difficulty of obtaining personnel with desire, skill, and ability.
2. Ease or difficulty of motivating employees.
3. Degree of identification that tends to exist between the interest and objectives of individuals, department, and overall firm.
4. Degree of frustration, morale, absenteeism, and turnover that tends to exist among enterprise employees.
5. Degree of cooperation and conflict among employees.
6. Degree of information distortion and ineffective communication within the enterprise.
7. Degree of unproductive time expended in unmeaningful bargaining, restrictive practices, etc.
8. Ease or difficulty of introducing changes and innovations in enterprise operations.
9. Degree to which scientific method is applied by enterprise employees.
10. Degree of organizational flexibility in causing or adapting to changing condition.

3. CAN MANAGEMENT TRAINING PROGRAMS IMPROVE MANAGEMENT SKILL?

Management development might be defined as a continuing process to increase the effectiveness of organization members through planned learning. This thesis is concerned with a specific phase of management development, that is, a training program to increase the knowledge of management groups concerning functional management theory and practice and increase the necessary skills to apply this knowledge. Training can be an effective device to help management in attaining its goals. The question is, can it be done? Or, more precisely, is there a cause-and-effect relationship between training (management strategy) and future trainee behavior (management goal)?

Some formal training undoubtedly improves manager performance and reduces the time required for adaptation to present and potential positions. It can be carried to an extreme. There is little in the way of objective measures to indicate exactly what is gained by various kinds of programs.[11] Even if apparently there is no tangible effect that makes reliable any kind of education, every type of organization including military, hospital, university, governmental agency, and business hire college graduates, sending present personnel back to study for master degrees, and spend large sums of money and effort for management development.[12]

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11 HENRY H. ALBERS, Principles of Management: A Modern Approach, 3d. ed., (New York: John Wiley & Sons, 1969). p. 676.

12 FRED LUTHANS, JAMES W. WALKER, RICHARD M. HODGETTS, "Evidence on the Validity of Management Education", Academy of Management Journal, Volume 12, No. 4, (Dec. 1969).

A research study was done to validate the effect that college education in general had on-job success in the entire marketing department of a major petroleum corporation. The single criterion used in this study was a promotability rating given by the man's immediate supervisor. This rating was reviewed by the next level manager. The 3,202 marketing personnel were rated as promotable and non-promotable. The large majority (75 percent) of non-promotables had not attended college at all. On the other hand, practically all (84 percent) of those personnel considered eligible for advancement in the company had attended college and most had received their degrees.[13]

Warner and Abegglen found that executives in 1952 were better educated than their counterparts of 1928.[14]

A 1959 survey of 562 managers from a number of industrial classifications revealed that 61 percent of top management, 63 percent of middle managers, and 62 percent of the lower level managers were college graduates.[15]

Therefore, it is seen that formal education does seem to correlate with manager success.

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13 FRED LUTHANS, JAMES W. WALKER, RICHARD M. MODGETTS, "Evidence on the Validity of Management Education", Academy of Management Journal, Volume 12, No. 4 (Dec. 1969), p. 453.

14 W. LLOYD WARNER and JAMES C. ABEGGLEN, Occupational Mobility in American Business and Industry, 1928-1952, (Minneapolis: University of Minnesota Press, 1955) and Big Business Leaders in America, (New York: Harper and Brothers, 1955).

15 FRANK C. PIERSON, The Education of American Businessmen, (New York, McGraw-Hill, 1959), p. 102.

Another research survey was done by Crane (1972)[16] on the same subject. This survey shows the correlation between management training and perceived effectiveness, and shows even that this perceived effectiveness varies with the training technique. In a mailed survey of 200 ASTD (American Society for Training and Development) members. The applications and perceived effectiveness of various action-oriented involvement techniques were explored. The six techniques were: role playing, case method/ incident process, simulation business/games, group discussion/ conference, program instruction and inbasket techniques. A question was asked of each of these techniques that were used. The question was: "How effective is this technique as a training device?" The four alternatives were (1) highly effective, (2) moderately effective, (3) limited effectiveness, and (4) ineffective. The response rate for the mailed questionnaire was 86 of 200 (43 percent). The responding sample was heavily weighted with large corporation (organizations concerned with more than 5,000 employees) and approximately 90 percent of respondents were training managers or directors. All of these respondents were using one or more of the participative techniques in their management training program. The result was that perceived effectiveness was clearly positive for all techniques and the order of perceived effectiveness based on the

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16 L. L. BYARS and D. P. CRANE, "Training by Objectives", Training and Development Journal, 1969, 23 (6), p. 38-49.

"high" response was simulation/business games (61%), programmed instruction (58%), inbasket (52%), group discussion/conference (48%), role playing (45%), and case methods/incident process (38%). In all cases, at least 90% of the responses were in the "high" or moderate categories.

The above surveys and a number of researches done in this area, show that management training can be an effective device to assist management in attaining its goals. How effective that is, of course, depends upon how appropriate the program is related to the organizational nature and needs.

Because this thesis is concerned with an approach to management development in the Imperial Iranian Navy, it will be appropriate to explore how military organizations view management development.

But whenever there is some discussion of management in military organizations, leadership seems to be the main and dominant factor of management. In fact, many see management as a technique or a subset of leadership. The impact of effective leaders is dramatically demonstrated over and over again on a national scale in every country's history, and on a local scale in every organization's past, especially in military organizations. It thus seems to be necessary to explain what is meant by "leader" and "leadership."

WHAT IS LEADERSHIP?

Although the terms leader and leadership are freely used in the literature as well as in every day language, there is a

great deal of misunderstanding of what is really meant by the terms.[17] What, then, do the terms leader and leadership mean? Let us look at some definitions as they were made in a sequence of time.

> The leader is one who succeeds in getting others to follow him.[18]
>
> Leadership is the process of influencing group activities toward goal setting and achievement.[19]
>
> The leader is the man who comes closest to realizing the norms the group values highest; this conformity gives him his high rank, which attracts people and implies the right to assume control of the group.[20]
>
> The leader is the person who creates the most effective change in group performance.[21]
>
> Leadership is the initiation of acts that result in a consistent pattern of group interaction directed toward the solution of mutual problems.[22]

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17 Fred E. Fielder and Martin M. Chemers, Leadership and Effective Management, pp. 3-11.

18 W. H., "Three Distinctions in the Study of Leaders," Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology, 23 (1928), p. 144-157.

19 Stogdill, R., "Personal Factors Associated with Leadership: A Survey of the Literature," Journal of Psychology, 25, (1948. 35-71).

20 G. C. Homans, The Human Group, Harcourt, Brace, Jovanovich, 1950.

21 R. B. Cattlell, "New Concepts for Measuring Leadership in Terms of Group Syntality", Human Relations, 4, (1951): p.161-84.

22 J. K. Hemphill, "A Proposed Theory of Leadership in Small Groups: Second Preliminary Report." Personnel Research Board, Ohio State University.

Leadership is the exercise of authority and the making of decisions.[23]

Two important threads run through all of these definitions. The first is that leadership is a relationship between people in which influence and power are unevenly distributed on a legitimate basis. This power may be given to the leader by the consent of the group members, by a contractual work agreement, or by law, but it is his to exercise. The second important thread is that there can be no leaders in isolation. If somebody wants to know whether he is a leader, he must see if there is someone following him - and since one cannot really coerce people to follow him, leadership implies that followers must explicitly or implicitly consent to their part in this influence relationship. The leader becomes involved with his subordinates, and it makes a difference to him whether he is liked or disliked, whether he is perceived as a fair or unfair leader, and above all, whether he has the support of his group in performing assigned tasks. A psychoanalytic formulation proposed by Freud, views the leader as a father figure, as someone to whom the group members have transferred the feelings they have toward their fathers. These feelings are love, respect, and fear.

Whatever the explanation of leadership is, however, the leadership situation is more than a transaction based on an exchange of economic commodities. It is, perhaps, nearer to the

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23 R. DUBIN, Human Relations in Administration: The Sociology of Organization, With Leading-and Cases, Prentice-Hall, 1951.

father-son relationship, as Freud has suggested, than it is to the relationship of salesman and customer, or lawyer and client.

Now the point is, who is the manager and who is the leader? If we identify the manager as a leader, perhaps it may be easier to determine the nature of management and leadership. Stated simply, a leader is one who guides and directs other people. Because he has subordinates subject to his command, the leader must give direction and purpose to their effort. How does the leader provide direction? Two points must be established. First, leadership is a kind of work. It is not a special psychological quality or the exercise of unique personality traits. The second point is that all work performed by leaders is not management work. This is why it has been seen that many outstanding leaders have been exceeded by poor managers. Leadership may be classified as (a) personal leadership, and (b) management leadership. Often by the time of reaching maturity, an individual has acquired the personality traits necessary for personal leadership, and he must still learn management leadership.[24]

There are many advantages to be gained if these personal leadership traits are already found in an outstanding individual or if he has special talents. The results accomplished by this leader will be outstanding. Because charismatic leaders often structure their energy in traditional lines, their leadership tends to be centralized. It can mean fast, aggressive action and great flexibility.

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24 Allen, Op. Cit., p. 7.

The main and important weakness of this type of leadership is the weaknesses of the leader himself. If his judgement is poor, or if he cannot recognize or understand the importance of some vital aspect of the work, all this will be reflected down the line. In management-leadership, the leader focuses upon the performance of many elements of the organization, which he, because of his organizational position, can orchestrate effectively. Here the leader, as manager, still exercises personal attributes, but he does not expect his own charisma to be replicated. His subordinates have different jobs and unique skills. He often establishes subordinate management positions, and in this way he can spread his leadership, by delegation, through a great size enterprise.

Because the management leadership is not determined only with the personality traits and a set of values, it is more subjected to change. The leader can adapt himself to the changing demands of the situation, and therefore, an effective leadership training program can improve his effectiveness of leadership management practices.

II. BACKGROUND OF USN EFFORTS

Even now in this technological and computerized world, leadership and management is perhaps the most potent factor in war. In no profession is the quality of leadership more essential than in the military service. Upon it depends not only men's lives, but the success or failure of battles. Leadership must be developed in the day to day lives of military men with the ultimate objective of it's application in combat. It is then that its presence or absence becomes quickly apparent. For it is then that all men are reduced to that common ground: The conflict between duty and self-preservation.

When bullets are whining and bombs falling, rank and station mean little, and a man's life becomes his most cherished possession. It is then that men gravitate toward their leader, be he field officer or lieutenant. Fortunate is he, who during the stress and strain of battle, is able to hold the confidence of his men, to think logically, to make sensible decisions, and to carry them into effect promptly and decisively.

"It is not easy to attain the required qualities of leadership. It may be true that some leaders are born, but for most of us a continuing effort is required to improve on the quality we know the leader must have. Those who make the effort will be the leaders the Navy must have to do its job now and in the future."[25]

WHAT THE U.S. NAVY IS DOING TO IMPROVE LEADERSHIP AND MANAGEMENT IN THE NAVY.

It is worthwhile to begin this subject with General Order No. 21.[26]

"LEADERSHIP IN THE UNITED STATES NAVY AND MARINE CORPS

Part I. Discussion

The United States Navy-Marine Corps records of victories, achievements on land, and in the air in peace and war have won for these services an honored position in our great nation. This heritage was passed on to us by our leaders, both officer and enlisted, whose outstanding examples of courage, integrity and devotion to duty are historically significant. They accomplished their missions successfully by high caliber leadership and personal example. The strength of our nation and our services depends upon courageous, highly motivated, responsible individuals.

Part II. Objective

The objective of this general order is to achieve an ever-improving state of combat readiness by

a. Emphasizing that successful leadership at all levels is based on personal example and more responsibility.

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25 ADMIRAL DAVID L. McDONALD, Chief of Naval Operations, (USN) "United States Navy Manual for Leadership Support." p. i

26 G. O. No. 21, Navy Department, Washington D.C., 1 May 1963 /S/ Fred Korth, Secretary of the Navy, United States Navy Manual for Leadership Support, Op. Cit., p. 11.

b. Insuring that every man and woman are themselves examples of military ideals.

c. Requiring personal attention to, and supervision of, subordinates.

Part III. Action

1. The Chief of Naval Operations and the Commandant of the Marine Corps shall be directly responsible for maintaining optimum leadership standards. The under secretary of the Navy shall be responsible for the proper implementation of this order.

2. Fleet, force, type, and administrative commanders shall review each command's leadership posture as an integral part of military inspections, and shall include their evaluation in inspection reports.

3. Every command and every major office and bureau of the Navy Department shall, on a continuing basis, review its leadership standards; each shall take effective measures to improve them and shall develop an awareness of the need for good leadership by providing programs for instruction in leadership principles and practices.

4. All persons in responsible positions, military and civilian, shall require that their subordinates discharge their duties in accordance with traditional concept of Navy and Marine Corps standards, paying particular attention to:

a. Moral responsibility

b. Personal example of behavior and performance

c. Established standards for personnel development.

d. Integration of principles and practices of leadership into everyday routine.

e. Effective organization and administration."

The United States Navy, besides the use of on the job training techniques for development of management and leadership skills, has provided a diversity of formal education in this area for the officers. Because there is a growing belief within the U.S. society, both military and civilian, that the management and leadership has a direct and high relationship with the attainment of desired goals in any type of organization, the money spent on management and leadership training with respect to other kinds of education is growing at an increasing rate. The formal management and leadership education in the United States Navy may be generally divided into two parts. First, there are long-term programs (Naval Postgraduate School, war college, civilian universities, etc.). Secondly, short term schools have been developed. This thesis is concerned with the latter. Among this king of training format the U.S. Navy has

1. Leadership and management schools.
2. Human resource management centers.
3. Perspective commanding officer-perspective executive officer schools.

1. LEADERSHIP AND MANAGEMENT TRAINING SCHOOL

The information of the course provided for U.S. officers in this school is as follows:[27]

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27 Leadership and Management for Officers, A-7c-0018, Instructor's Manual, p. 1.

Course Mission:

"To provide officers in the grade of Lieutenant Commander and below with the latest and most pertinent information and practical application in leadership methods, management techniques and skills for applying the Navy's human goals plan. The course will enhance the graduate's knowledge in the fields of responsibility, accountability and authority, management and motivation, theory and application, organizational development, interpersonal communications, problem solving applications, crisis management and pertinent human resources management information. Mastery of this material will enable the officer graduates to more effectively execute the duties of division officers or department heads for either afloat or ashore units.

Personnel Eligible:

Commissioned and warrant officers through the grade of Lieutenant Commander.

Obligated Service: Not applicable.

NOBC Earned: Not applicable.

Physical Requirements: None.

Security Clearance Required: None.

Prerequisite Training: None.

Related and/or Follow-on Training: None.

Grading weight factor: Not applicable.

Phase I. RESPONSIBILITY, ACCOUNTABILITY AUTHORITY AND POWER

DESCRIPTION: This phase of the course will center on

defining the operating parameters within which the student works. This will include consideration of constraints and freedom of action in his day to day work environment.

6.6 hours

Phase II. INTERPERSONAL COMMUNICATION: This phase will center on effective interpersonal relations and communications within the Naval organization.

30.2 hours

Phase III. MANAGEMENT AND MOTIVATION: This phase will focus on the examination and personalization of current management and motivation techniques available to today's Naval leader.

15.8 hours

Phase IV. ORGANIZATION DEVELOPMENT: This phase will concentrate on analysis and effective management of organizational dynamics within the student's operating parameters.

6.5 hours

Phase V. PROBLEM SOLVING AND DECISION MAKING: This phase will focus on decision making and problem solving techniques available to today's Navy manager.

6.0 hours

Phase VI. PRACTICAL APPLICATION IN SPECIAL MANAGERIAL PROBLEMS: The final phase will deal with the practical application of learned skills to real Navy problems within the student's operating parameters. Some of

the special problems of management are also dealt with here, such as drug abuse, alcohol abuse, overseas diplomacy and equal opportunity programs.

9.5 hours

This course is taught in two weeks (80 hours). The selected subject to teach and distribution of hours are based on the needs of the U. S. Navy, which is derived by the discovery of the particular lacks of leadership by middle management in the U. S. Navy.[28] (Hick's Investigation)

2. HUMAN RESOURCE MANAGEMENT CENTER

The U. S. Navy, in 1971, established a Human Resource Development Project to develop, implement, and evaluate a variety of inter-related, but separate, programs, including race relations organizational development and management, overseas diplomacy, drug and alcohol education, drug abuse control, and alcoholism prevention. After a three-year developmental period, the Navy Human Goals Plan integrated these programs and assigned responsibility for their implementation and support within the established Navy organization called the Human Resource Management Support System.[29] The elements which comprise the U.S. Navy's Human Resource Management Support System are organized into three major categories:

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28 Op. Cit., p. 5.

29 OPNAVINST 5300.6B, "Navy Human Resource Management Support System," p. 2.

(1) Human Resource Management, including leadership and management, and overseas diplomacy.

(2) Equal Opportunity/Race Relations.

(3) Drug Abuse Control and Alcoholism Prevention.

The implementation of the Human Resource Management Support System will assist in the achievement of the following objectives for the U. S. Navy:

(1) Improved unit readiness and operational capability;

(2) Improved leadership and management of human resources at all levels in the chain of command;

(3) Improved personnel stability through the retention of top quality personnel in proper balance and to the required numbers;

(4) Improved communications at all levels in the chain of command;

(5) Improved image of the Navy as a professional organization which recognizes individual contributions and the desire for respect by Navy personnel, and the Navy's desire for, and recognition of, the unique contribution provided by personnel of all grades, rates, creeds, and national origins;

(6) Greater career satisfaction, leading to increased recruitment, retention of capable and dedicated individuals, and development of a stable force of career personnel within the Navy;

(7) Demonstrated equal opportunity by the representative assignment of minority personnel throughout all grades, rates, and rating groups of the Navy;

(8) Guaranteed equality of promotional, administrative, and disciplinary practices and policies for all personnel, regardless of race, creed, religion, sex, or national origin;

(9) Increased overseas tour satisfaction and productivity, improved U. S. Navy image overseas through positive overseas diplomacy measures, and improved screening and preparation of personnel for overseas assignment.

(10) Identification and reduction of conditions and opportunities leading to drug and alcohol abuse, and willing acceptance and effective utilization of successfully recovered personnel upon return to duty with the command.

(11) Increased responsiveness to both command requirements and individual needs through the development and implementations of command and affirmative action plans in the area.

Human Resource Management, with all the above objectives, began to work since 1974 and is staffed by HRM specialists. They are trained to employ consultant assistance methods for supporting command actions in leadership and management and other areas mentioned in the objectives. A schedule for Human Resource Specialist availability will be settled. (This is

called an HRAV and is for a period of five days for each command.) After the HRAV period has been scheduled, the HRM cycle will normally be executed as in Figure 3.

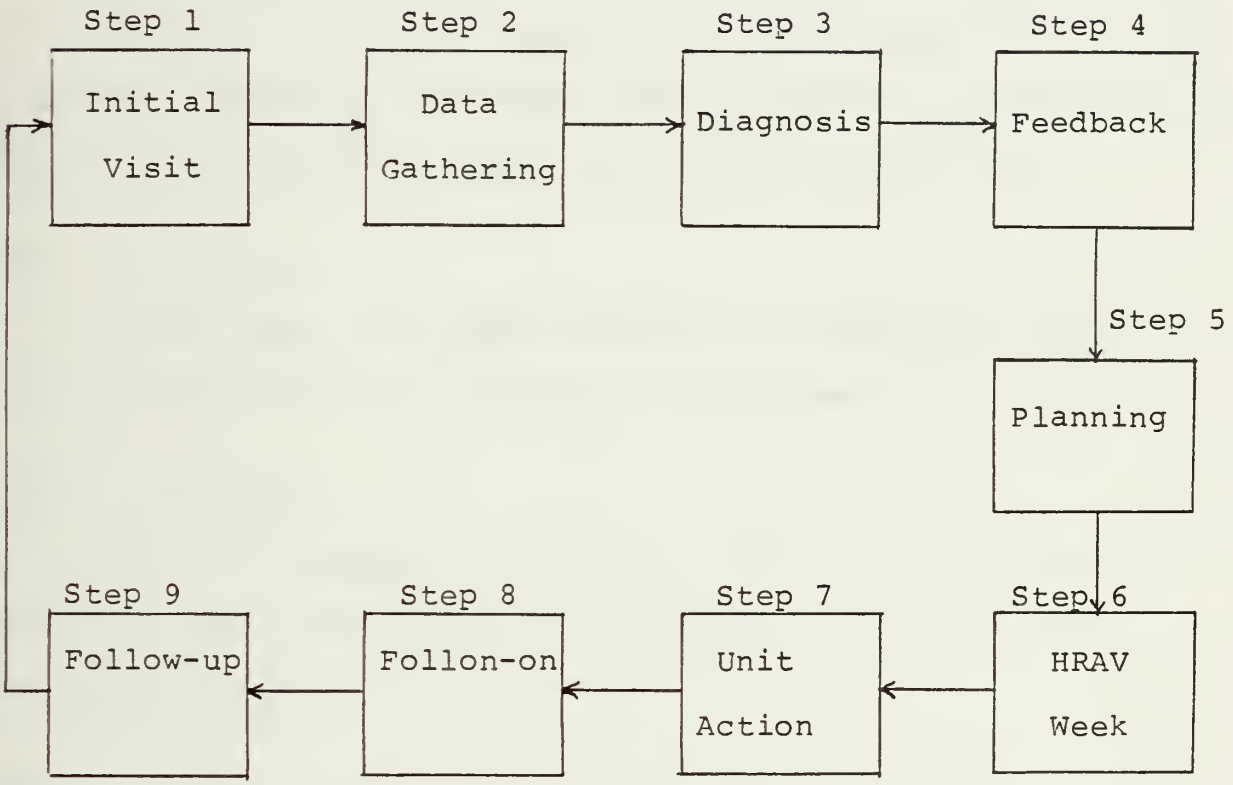


Figure 3.

STEP 1 - Initial Visit

A Human Resource Management Support Team will call upon the commanding officer prior to the scheduled HRAV to describe the capabilities and resources of the HRMC, to explain to the commanding officer the HRM cycle, the purpose and confidentiality of the Navy HRM survey, and to make arrangements for assistance in administration of the survey.

STEP 2 - Data Gathering

The primary tool used to gather data on Human Resource Management is the Navy HRM Survey. Interviews are used to supplement the survey as appropriate.

STEP 3 - Diagnosis

During this step, the unit's survey and interview data is analyzed. Now data is collated and displayed in order to assist commands in determining their meaning and implications.

STEP 4 - Feedback

In this step, the HRMST provides the commanding officer with the results of the survey and interviews.

STEP 5 - Planning

After the feedback, a planning session will be conducted based upon the action areas and priorities set by the unit commanding officer.

STEP 6 - Human Resource Availability Week

The required unit output for this 5 day period is the development or modification of an existing CAP (Commanding Action Plan) which can be promulgated in the command within thirty days of completion of the HRAV. The HRMST generally employes a work-shop methodology to assist commands, but if the commanding offi-cers desire, the HRMST can recommend various other methods to assist commands in meeting this requirement, e.g., workshops on a variety of topics.

STEP 7 - Unit Action

This step is continuing actual implementation and monitoring of actions set forth in the Command Action Plan.

STEP 8 - Follow-on

At the request of the unit commanding officer, follow-on activities may be conducted to provide additional assistance in the development and implementation of the Command Action Plan.

STEP 9 - Follow-up

Six to twelve months after the HRAV, a follow-up visit will be scheduled for determining additional assistance, which may be required by commanding officers to modify and update command actions.

Foot note:

HRM: Human Resource Management

HRMC: Human Resource Management Center

HRAV: Human Resource Availability

HRMS: Human Resource Management Support

HRMST: Human Resource Management Support Team

CAP: Command Action Plan

3. PERSPECTIVE COMMANDING OFFICER - PERSPECTIVE EXECUTIVE OFFICER SCHOOLS

The main purpose of this school is to prepare officers who are going to have the assignments of commands and executive on board the ships, in fact it is a transition course for the

mentioned jobs. The officers that attend this school will be informed from the current leadership and management problems of the command and executive, and they will be trained to cope with them. In fact, one of the objectives of this school is to encourage the student for a good cooperation with the Human Resource Management Centers, which is believed a very effective system for improvement of leadership and management.

Leadership and management is one of the most important subjects, which is considered deeply through the whole military and civilian organization in the world, because it is believed that there is a direct relationship between productivity and efficiency of the organization and leadership and management exercised in the organization. The road to the systematic and successful training of leadership and management is not an easy one. There is not a quick, easy, or magic formula which is guaranteed to produce satisfactory results. But the benefits received by a successful training program are many and by far outweigh its costs and other limitations. This is why we see here in the Naval Postgraduate School with its high cost there are several students of management from three countries of the world.

III. A PROCESS FOR DEVELOPMENT OF A LEADERSHIP AND MANAGEMENT PROGRAM FOR IMPERIAL IRANIAN NAVY JUNIOR OFFICERS

His Majesty Shahanshah Ariamehr's guidelines for the allocation of Budget in 2536 (21-3-77 to 20-3-78) have been based on the principle that our country should not only enjoy the fruits of an ever-expanding economy, but that together with this expansion it should also benefit from a comprehensive welfare and social program based, on the one hand, upon the specific characteristics and needs of an Iranian society, and on the other hand, on the vista of a world in perpetual motion. Our program should be along a path which will continue to keep us ahead of events so that we shall never fall victim to unexpected circumstances.[30] Based on this principle, we can see that parallel to economic and social development of the last few years in Iran, the government has given special priority to the strengthening of defense capabilities in order to maintain our national independence and integrity because it is believed that it is only in an atmosphere of national security that one can implement these far-reaching economic and social programs. This is the government's policy with respect to the nation's defense capabilities, and its unique role in the preservation of the country's independence and indeed its very existence. The history has shown whenever a country has a good condition to develop its economy, but it is not strong enough to protect the

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30 Prime Minister Hoveyda, Keyhan International, February 26, 1977, p. 4.

situation, the enemies show themselves upon the horizon.[31]

Based on this policy, the Iranian Armed Forces have been expanding at a high rate during the last few years, and we see as a part of this expansion of defense forces that the Imperial Iranian Navy has an equally fast growth. This growth will continue in the future. Power, speed, and restless energies make heavy demands upon ships, aircraft, weapons, and upon the methods of training and managing men. It is obvious that while the weapons of war change, and the organizations to handle them change, men also change. All of the people are largely the products of their environment and their culture. As the environment changes, the people change. Thus, there is a growing schism of deep-rooted differences in the men entering today's Navy from those who sailed the seas in previous years. Officers and men with new ideas, new attitudes, and men with backgrounds which differ substantially from the backgrounds of some decades ago, will require development of their strengths, recognition of their weaknesses, and a channeling of their talents, to perform in the fast changing I. I. Navy of today.

To get people to do the Navy's job effectively requires training, ingenuity and spirit. In the Navy, leadership is the execution of the Navy's laws, regulations and customs as they govern the relationships of superiors and subordinates. Where the individual Naval officer is concerned, leadership consists of his development of the human influences surrounding his

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31 Admiral Habibollahi, C.N.O. of I.I.N.

position through the sum of his beliefs, knowledge, and skills. These are, of course, derived from his education, training and experiences as a member of the Imperial Iranian Navy.

Recognizing that the primary concern of this thesis is to design a process (a model) for improvement of leadership and management, the first question will be "What are the leadership and management skills?" This, of course, is a fundamental question that must be asked prior to the development of any skill training, therefore, the concentration will be first the "Need Analysis". In this case, it will lead to the question of what a successful leader actually does in his units. In this, a pattern of leader actions can be found, which can be taught. Second, "How to teach and administer the program?" Third, "How to select instructors?" and finally, "How to evaluate training."

To create a rigorous scientific method, or to follow a very well known method which led to a successful training program in many enterprises and military organizations in different countries, does not mean that it can always work effectively in one's own country. It is surprising how often formal training follows the same pattern in many cultures. It may be fairly well done, but if it is not systematic, we will never be sure that it's done as well as it can be, and we will find it harder to change it once it is instituted. This is what the system approach is designed to avoid, and this is why in training and education,

these days the system is of central concern.[32]

Using the systems approach to develop a training program for the I. I. N. Junior Officers (Figure 2).

STEP 1 - Identification of Needs

If we are to prepare a training program for the I.I. Navy Junior Officers, we would naturally want first to know what a good performing officer (let's call him "superior officer") ordinarily does that a not-so-good performing officer ("average officer") would or could do with additional training and assistance. (Note that we are not asking what does a superior officer feel.) In other words, based on the tasks assigned to the officers, we need to make up a list of skills and knowledge that are needed for an officer which will lead him to be a good performer. Then we would designate those skills and knowledge that the officers already have and those they will just have to learn on the job, and what is left are the skills and knowledge in which the officers must be trained. Next, we would examine these skills and knowledges and group them into some logical order. The task of Step 1 in this thesis is suggested to be done by need assessment.

NEED ASSESSMENT

The principle objective of need analysis is to show a process for finding the management and leadership skills needed for

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32 A. K. QUINN, In Training, The System's The Thing, "Training and Development Journal," Vol. 24, No. 2, Feb. 1970, p. 25.

THE SYSTEM CYCLE OF TRAINING

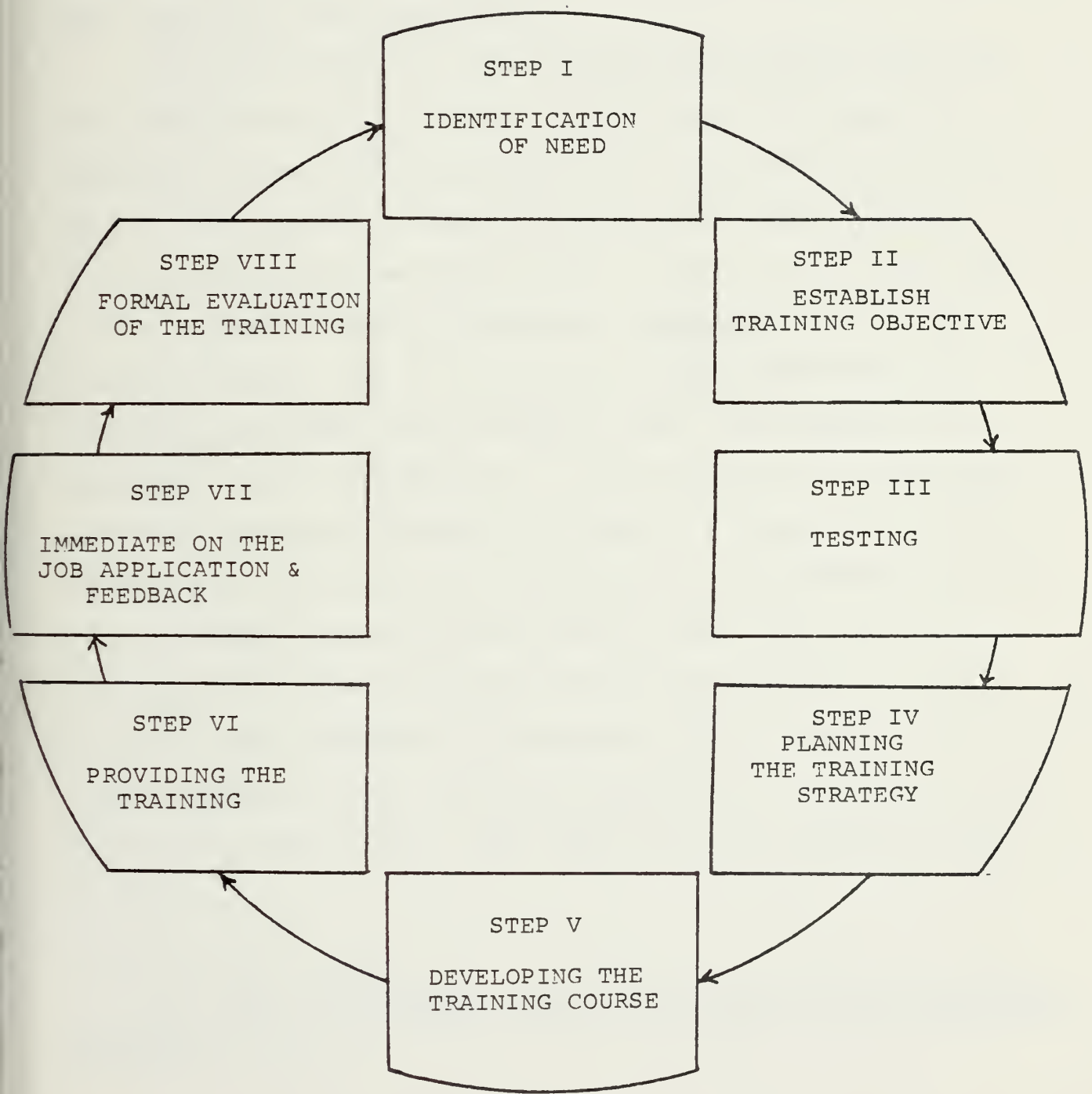


Figure 2.

the Imperial Iranian Navy. To meet as much as possible this objective, a process is described there in which there is a synthesis of two separate methods.

The first is based on the procedure of job competency assessment, developed by Harvard University Professor David C. McClelland (1976)[33] which leads to show the observed management and leadership skills required.

The second method is known as the Echo Method, developed by Richard Barthol of U.C.L.A., which shows the process of exploring the perceived management and leadership skills in the Navy. Before going through the methods that were mentioned above, it is considered appropriate to point out the fact that within the Navy there are different communities (e.g., line, aviation, supply, etc.), and perhaps these communities have different leadership and management skill requirements and at different levels of priority. In the explanation of the above methods, the Junior Officers are seen as a single corp, this is only for the simplicity of showing how the methods work. In fact, the same methods can be used for each community, and in this way, the leadership and management skill needs will be found for that community. Furthermore, it is assumed that all Junior Officers within the same community will rotate in accordance with career plans. Thus they will have different tours of duty.

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33 McBer and Company, "Identification of Competency Characteristics of Superior Navy Officers for Leadership and Management Training", p. 1.

IDENTIFICATION OF OBSERVED MANAGEMENT AND LEADERSHIP SKILLS.

Methodology

1. Selection of Sample: As for those officers who are subjected for the identification of management and leadership skills, they must have some years of experience and particularly they must have some tours of duty in which they have exercised some management and leadership. Therefore, it is assumed that the whole population will be Lieutenants and Lieutenant Commanders. Among this population, a number of officers will be randomly selected as the sample.

2. Identification of "Superior" and "Average" Officers: Officers in the sample will be rated "superior" or "average" by their commanding officers with respect to the whole population. Commanding officers can use any criterion that they think is appropriate for this rating. Comparing this rating with the results of the Navy evaluation system, and by leaving the inconsistency result between two channels of rating to a board of experienced officers for further decision, all the officers in the sample can be divided into superior and average officers. In fact, this shows who is believed to be a superior officer and who is believed to be an average officer in the actual environment and culture and belief of the Navy.

3. "Behavioral Event" Interviewing: The officers in the sample will be asked to describe in behaviorally specific

terms, critical management and leadership incidents in which they participated. The technique of behavioral event interviewing, developed by McClelland (1976),[34] involves obtaining a number of descriptions of "behavioral episodes." For example, an officer might be asked to think of incidents or events in which he felt particularly successful (or unsuccessful), and then to describe in detail the events leading up to the incident -- when and where the incident occurred, and how he was feeling and reacting before, during and after it. A distinguishing characteristic of this interview procedure is that it elicits information from which actual behaviors can be recognized, rather than eliciting interpretations or perceptually biased recollections of general outcomes.

4. Content Analysis of Officers' Behavioral Events: Analyzing the content of officers' behavioral events by a board of experts will show a number of characteristics which lead to successful management and leadership in the Navy and can be divided into groups of characteristics with respect to management functions. Furthermore, since the officers in the sample were rated before as "superior" and "average" officers, it is possible to compare the superior and average interviewees in terms of the content of their behavioral events. This will help to determine the specification of characteristics which are present or

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34 Loc. Cit., p. 2.

largely present in the "superior" and "average" officers, and to identify the characteristics which are present in the superior group and absent in the average group, and these characteristics are the competency characteristics that are likely to lead to more effective performance. In summary, this method is likely to show the observed MANAGEMENT AND LEADERSHIP SKILLS by a set of characteristics under their appropriate management functions, and it shows the competency characteristics of Navy Officers, which can be an input for the board of top management in the Navy to decide what is needed as management and leadership skill in settling the training program.

PERCEIVED MANAGEMENT AND LEADERSHIP SKILL

To rely only on job competency assessment method for determining the management and leadership characteristics may not be adequate, and in some situations may not show the desired results. With the variety of jobs and missions that officers are assigned at sea or on shore, inside of the country or in other countries, it is very difficult, if not impossible, to take a valid sample from the whole population. For the same reason, to assume that in the same community all officers will rotate and will confront the situations which their behavioral event shows the skill needed in that community, is not a correct assumption. In some cases the officers may be assigned jobs which are not related to their specific community. For example, a supply officer may

be assigned for Training Advisory to a foreign country, and being a good and skilled supply officer does not mean that he will effectively perform his new assignment.

The observed positive or negative characteristic of the officers by their behavioral events may depend on the time they occurred, on the place they occurred, on specific organizational environment, on special situations, and on other variables. Therefore, if some characteristics have led to success for one officer, they may not lead to success for others.

The other weak point which is unseen by the critical incident method, is that it does not show the actual and future expense of that successfully performed event. It is seen in some cases that an officer has apparently performed an assignment effectively, but only after the fact are the negative effects and the expenses of his action understood.

Therefore, for having a valid result to determine what are the skills that are needed for effective performance in leadership and management, another method is suggested to support the competency assessment for observed need. The preferred method is called the ECHO METHOD, which will show the perceived need for management and leadership.

Methodology

Using the same sample of officers of the critical incident method with the respective rating "superior" or "average", the perceived need assessment can be done by distribution of a

check list as a primer for the officers to use in generating cards which describe good behaviors a junior officer should perform. The officers in the sample will be asked to indicate the skills and characteristics which they think are important for an officer in junior grade. Eventually, a group of characteristics can be sorted and labeled by the officers in language which has meaning to that population of officers. Once all these pooled responses are received and labeled according to management functions, they can be set alongside the data collected by the McClelland method, and checked for omissions of pertinent factors. Here again, similar to the critical incident method, it is possible to compare the superior and average officers' perceptions. The differences in these perceived characteristics are likely to show the perceived competency characteristics toward which we shall desire to train.

Combining two methods which are mentioned above and to see them as a single process, will largely reduce the weak points of each method in need assessment. But even with this process there is a very important point which must be considered. The result of the analysis of observed needs and perceived needs shows the needs of leadership and management skill in the current time, and does not consider the needs of the future in such a changing and expanding situation. Therefore, if we use the two results (observed need and perceived need) as two valuable inputs to a board whose members are the top management, and who know the future changes and plans of the Navy, the decision of

the board will be enhanced in defining the real leadership and management skills needs of the junior officers.

STEP II - Training Objectives

The identification of skills and knowledges needs is not enough for setting the objectives of training. We have to know how well the Navy wants to improve the officers' leadership and management skill, according to the limitations and levels of priority that will be given to this king of training. In other words, we have to set some criterion levels based upon the Navy needs and policy, which together make up a training objective.

STEP III - Testing

Based on how well we want to improve the leadership and management skill, we set standards for the training to be met by officers. Therefore, it implies a test. Part of the test can be written as soon as the needs and policy (the objective of training) are clarified. It would be better to write the test after we know the objective of training and before we write the teaching plan. The test should be based upon the objective, not on the teaching. Because the primary purpose of a test is to serve as a "go-nogo" indication. We want to find out only whether the officers have reached the objective. It is not for identifying how much better Officer B is than Officer A, or what is the item difficulty, discrimination and deviation from the norm.

However, it must not be assumed that we do not care about the effectiveness of training. An evaluation system must be

designed.

STEP IV - Planning the Training Strategy

When the needs and objectives are fixed, it is necessary to plan the training approach. It is necessary to decide how each subject must be taught, and what the appropriate techniques will be. We must also select instructors and decide WHEN and WHERE the training must take place. These are the elements which affect training efficiency, and if they are appropriately planned, they will have a great impact on the motivation of officers toward putting more effort into learning more. For appropriate selections of the training techniques, it will be helpful to see what are the learning principles (Table 4) and learning conditions (Table 5). With these in mind and the nature of the subject to be taught, a technique can be chosen. As with any other teaching device or technique, the effectiveness of simulation and gaining is seen more in the management training. Simulation as a teaching device for management, has had a considerable growth in the United States. The results of a survey conducted in 1962 show that of 90 leading collegiate schools of business, 82 had either been using or planned to use simulation as a teaching technique.[35] Simulation and management games can be used as a technique for leadership and management education of Navy Junior Officers in the Imperial Iranian Navy because there are several

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35 DALE, ALFRED G. and CHARLES R. KLASSON, Business Gaming: A Survey of American Collegiate Schools of Business, Bureau of Business Research, The University of Texas, 1964.

Table 4

L E A R N I N G P R I N C I P L E S [36]

One. LEARNING IS AN EXPERIENCE ACTIVATED BY AND OCCURRING WITHIN THE LEARNER.
Learners are not "taught." They become "motivated" to seek newer knowledges, skills, and behaviors.

Two. LEARNING IS THE DISCOVERY OF PERSONAL MEANING AND RELEVANCY.
Learners more readily accept and use concepts which have meaning to them and are relevant to their needs and problems.

Three. LEARNING IS SOMETIMES A PAINFUL PROCESS.
Changing behavior often requires giving up old, comfortable ways of believing, thinking, and acting.

Four. LEARNING RESULTS FROM EXPERIENCE.
People become independent when they have experienced independence; trusting when they have experienced trust; responsible when they have experienced responsibility.

Five. LEARNING IS HIGHLY UNIQUE AND INDIVIDUAL.
Each learner develops his own way of learning and solving problems. As he becomes exposed to the methods of others, he can refine his own in order to be more effective.

Six. LEARNING HAS ITS RICHEST RESOURCE IN THE LEARNER'S SELF.
The learner's background of experiences provides a wealthy resource for problem-solving and learning.

Seven. LEARNING IS BOTH AN EMOTIONAL AND AN INTELLECTUAL PROCESS.
Learners have feelings as well as thoughts. Learning is maximized when learners say that which reflects both what they think and fell.

Eight. LEARNING IS A COOPERATIVE AND COLLABORATIVE PROCESS.
Helping each other to learn requires a process of interactive interdependence.

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36 Human Resource Management Handbook, BUPERS, Wash. D.C., 1973.

LEARNING PRINCIPLES, continued:

Nine. LEARNING IS AN EVOLUTIONARY PROCESS.
The ability to be understanding, accepting, trusting, confronting, sharing, helping, and evaluating requires a developing, evolving process. It cannot be imposed.

Table 2

L E A R N I N G C O N D I T I O N S [37]

One. AN ENVIRONMENT OF ACTIVE PEOPLE.
People learn when they feel they are personally involved in the learning process.

Two. A CLIMATE OF RESPECT.
When a high value is placed on individuality, and a sense of caring prevails.

Three. A CLIMATE OF ACCEPTANCE.
Accepting a person means that he can be himself and hold his beliefs.

Four. AN ATMOSPHERE OF TRUST.
When people end up feeling a trust in themselves and others.

Five. A CLIMATE OF SELF-DISCOVERY.
When learners are helped to meet their own needs rather than having their needs dictated to them.

Six. A NON-THREATENING PSYCHOLOGICAL CLIMATE.
So that persons can confront persons, and ideas confront ideas ... without fear.

Seven. A CLIMATE OF OPENNESS.
When personal concerns, feelings, ideas and beliefs can be expressed and examined openly.

Eight. AN EMPHASIS ON THE UNIQUELY PERSONAL NATURE OF LEARNING.
When each individual knows that his values, his beliefs, his feelings, and his views are important and significant.

Nine. A CLIMATE IN WHICH DIFFERENCE IS DETERMINED TO BE GOOD AND DESIRABLE.
When differences in people are as acceptable as differences in ideas.

Ten. A CLIMATE WHICH RECOGNIZES THE RIGHT OF INDIVIDUALS TO MAKE MISTAKES.

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37 Human Resource Management Handbook, BUPERS, Wash. D.C., 1973.

LEARNING CONDITIONS, continued:

Learning is facilitated when error is accepted as a natural part of the learning process.

Eleven. AN ATMOSPHERE THAT TOLERATES AMBIGUITY.
When alternative solutions can be explored without the pressures of immediate answers.

Twelve. AN EMPHASIS ON COOPERATIVE EVALUATION AND SELF-EVALUATION.
When people can see themselves as they really are, with the help of their peers.

strong points that support the value of decision simulation as an effective management education technique.[38] First, the participants experience a great deal of personal involvement. Because they are highly emotional and psychologically involved, they can become very receptive to learning new skills. Second, the management game is a dynamic and live case focusing attention on the changing Navy situation. It simulates the decision making environment of the Navy and compresses a large amount of decision making experience into a short period of time.

Third, it gives the opportunity of focusing on problems in the general area of leadership and management, with specific emphasis on functional relationships.

Fourth, officers undergoing these simulations are usually able to see the overall needs of the Navy and its limitations and viewpoints of the chain of command and other departments. They are now able to also focus upon specific tasks and skills within their jobs.

Finally, the elements of risk and uncertainty are portrayed in a very real sense and must be considered within the framework of decision making.

There are several other advantages for using simulation and gaming as a training technique, but still it must be kept in mind that this technique is very effective when properly employed, and that the administration of this technique or any other techniques will be affected by the number of students, time length,

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38 Cohen, et al, The Carnegie Tech Management Game, Richard D. Irwin, Inc., 1964.

and resources available for training. The selection of training techniques must be done when all the necessary data are collected and the related policy of the Navy is defined.

As was mentioned before, one of the points which must be considered in planning the training strategy is: Who is it who is going to teach? A teacher or instructor has a great role in the performance of students especially in the training education centers, either civilian or military. Considerable attention must be placed upon the selection and training of instructors.

SELECTION OF INSTRUCTORS FOR LEADERSHIP AND MANAGEMENT COURSE -- When we have defined needs and objectives of training and carefully considered content, methods and technique of teaching, it would seem that besides the knowledge components needed for instructors, which are not difficult to measure, the most important point will be to examine the components of behavior for instructors that underlie success in leadership and management training. It is in fact the characteristics of a successful leadership and management instructor which must be defined. Once they are known, a process for selection of instructors can be designed based on those characteristics. Therefore, the central question will be: "What should the instructor be like, or putting it another way, "What does the student respond to in the instructor?"

Charles Albano (Employee Development Specialist in training at Fort Mammoth. He serves as a Chairman of Management Development Department. His special interest is the study of leadership.)

defined some characteristics of traners which are worth mentioning:[39]

Sincerity: Generally speaking, the insincere instructor is given away by what he says and how he chooses to support his points. The sincere instructor, on the other hand, recognizes the reservations that certain managers (officers) may have, and where justified, concedes to them in appropriate measure, placing them aside until everything can be seen in perspective.

Open-mindedness: Before a mature adult will gamble on the acceptability of his ideas in a classroom situation, he usually looks for signs that assure him that his ideas will be treated with the respect that they deserve. He needs to know that he can trust the instructor in this important respect. Once assured of this, he will come forth as a contributer in group activities, and he will be more inclined to remain open-minded himself.

Confidence: This is a quality that is very quickly felt by students, and it is one that can enforce their attention and respect. Where the instructor shows lack of confidence, it may be taken as an indication that he is not sure of, that he does not believe in the concepts, theories, or views he is teaching. This can have serious implications in the training of students who by the nature of their jobs tend to concentrate on the practical.

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39 CHARLES ALBANO, "Closing the Confidence Gap," Training and Development Journal, August, 1973, pp. 8 - 13.

Preparation: When an instructor has done his "homework" it is evident. Preparation is reflected in his ability to make a nice lateral or vertical transition in his thinking. It is also evident in his ability to trace a subject into successively detailed levels, or to integrate the subject into other currents of thought that hold interest for the students. Perhaps the most important point of preparation for instructors is in providing illustrations that clarify and make ideas relevant to the student's experience.

Facility in Condensing, Selecting, and Trying-In Thoughts: With a time limit, the instructor has the opportunity to convey to his students information or theories of current applicability. If he reduces these to a level of gross simplicity, he will destroy the full meaning and intent. If he is not able to tie-in to previously learned material or relate the new to the student's experience, he will lose the opportunity to induce change.

Concern for Application: One of the most important elements in successful training, especially in leadership and management, lies in the instructor's ability to communicate his concern for real world application of the material he brings to the students' attention. The students look to such concern as one indication of the sincerity behind the training program. If the attention directed to theory is one-sided and excessive, the instructor is teaching to deaf students.

Participation in the Learning Process: Particularly in the leadership and management training, instructors generally do now know the experiences of the students. Therefore, there will be a communicative condition that will spur instructor and student to mutual participation in learning. This will further indicate the instructor's sincerity, open-mindedness and confidence.

Future-mindedness: This must be communicated by the instructor's awareness of the projects and problems coming in the future, and demands that these are going to place on the existing.

What are mentioned above are some characteristics which an instructor would possess in the leadership and management training. Perhaps in some cultures, some changes are needed or some others must be considered to cope with proper culture, but the important point is they must be defined before the selection procedure, and they must be categorized in terms of skills which can be measured and constitute the basis of the selection criterion.

The proposed selection system which will be stated below does not show a detailed procedure for selection of instructors for leadership and management training courses. It is only a general process which can be applicable in case the Imperial Iranian Navy intends to establish a training center for leadership and management courses.

The objective of this system would be selection of the best instructors (given, training objective, content of subjects

to be taught, training techniques) from the human resources available for duty at the new Naval Leadership and Management C Center (school).

In order to show how the process can work it is is needed to bring up before:

(1) It is assumed that resources of instructors is Officers' Corps of the Navy. For some subjects within the leadership and management training, the instructors can be employed from either the I. I. Army or I. I. Air Force, or even civilian universities. But the assumption is made because it is believed that as long as the course is in the area of leadership and management in the Navy, it would be more appropriate and more effective to use Naval Officers as instructors.

(2) As it is stated before, if the I. I. N. intends to provide such a formal course for junior officers, it will be new and there will be no past experience from which to draw. Therefore, the system of selection must be future-oriented. The feedback will be the most important factor in the system. The Navy must continually re-evaluate the selection methodology. The question must be asked "Are the instructors being selected effectively?" If not, the system should be tuned to provide the desired result.

(3) It is felt that willingness is the main factor that must be considered in selection of instructors, otherwise, to put

any kind of test in the selection process will be meaningless. In this case the question is, "If there are no volunteers, what can be done?" In such a case, the selection must be done based only on archival data which the Navy has on each officer. But if some motivation factors support the instructor job, for example, if the instructor billet be a positive point in selection for promotion, there should be volunteers. Of course, the possibility of the creation of such a motivation factor depends on how top management sees the course and what is the priority of this course with respect to other projects.

(4) The criterion and skills generally mentioned in the proposed process have the main purpose of showing how the system works. In fact, based on the needs of leadership and management skill, course content, training technique, etc. the characteristics of an effective instructor must be defined and the criterion must be derived from these characteristics, and it must be carefully developed, feasible and relevant. Criterion should be both general and specific in nature. General criteria should cover the attributes desired in an instructor; specific criteria should identify the unique demands of the subject that he is going to teach. It is recommended that such a criterion be developed by a board of people selected for their knowledge and experience in the area.

(5) The rejection of candidates in the process of selection should be free of penalty because it will decrease the number of volunteers as an immediate effect.

(6) The job of instructor is the same as other jobs in the Navy. The officer selected after the relative training will be the leadership and management instructor for some years and then will go to other duty.

(7) It is believed that the important factor in designing a system is gathering enough valid data, in fact, a feasibility study is suggested. Once enough information is available, the designed model will be more effective and more applicable in proper situations.

These points and other points, such as the size of the training center or time length of the courses provided by the center, which will be determined when Navy policy is defined, must be kept in mind for the developing of a selection model which, hopefully, will cope with the objective of the leadership and management training.

A PROPOSED PROCEDURE FOR SELECTION OF LEADERSHIP AND MANAGEMENT INSTRUCTORS FROM THE IMPERIAL IRANIAN NAVY OFFICERS (Figure 4).

(1) APPLICATION ISSUE: The first step in instructor selecting model would be to issue applications to all officers in the Navy. The purpose of this application is to identify volunteers for instructors at the Navy Leadership and Management School. Along with the application can be sent general

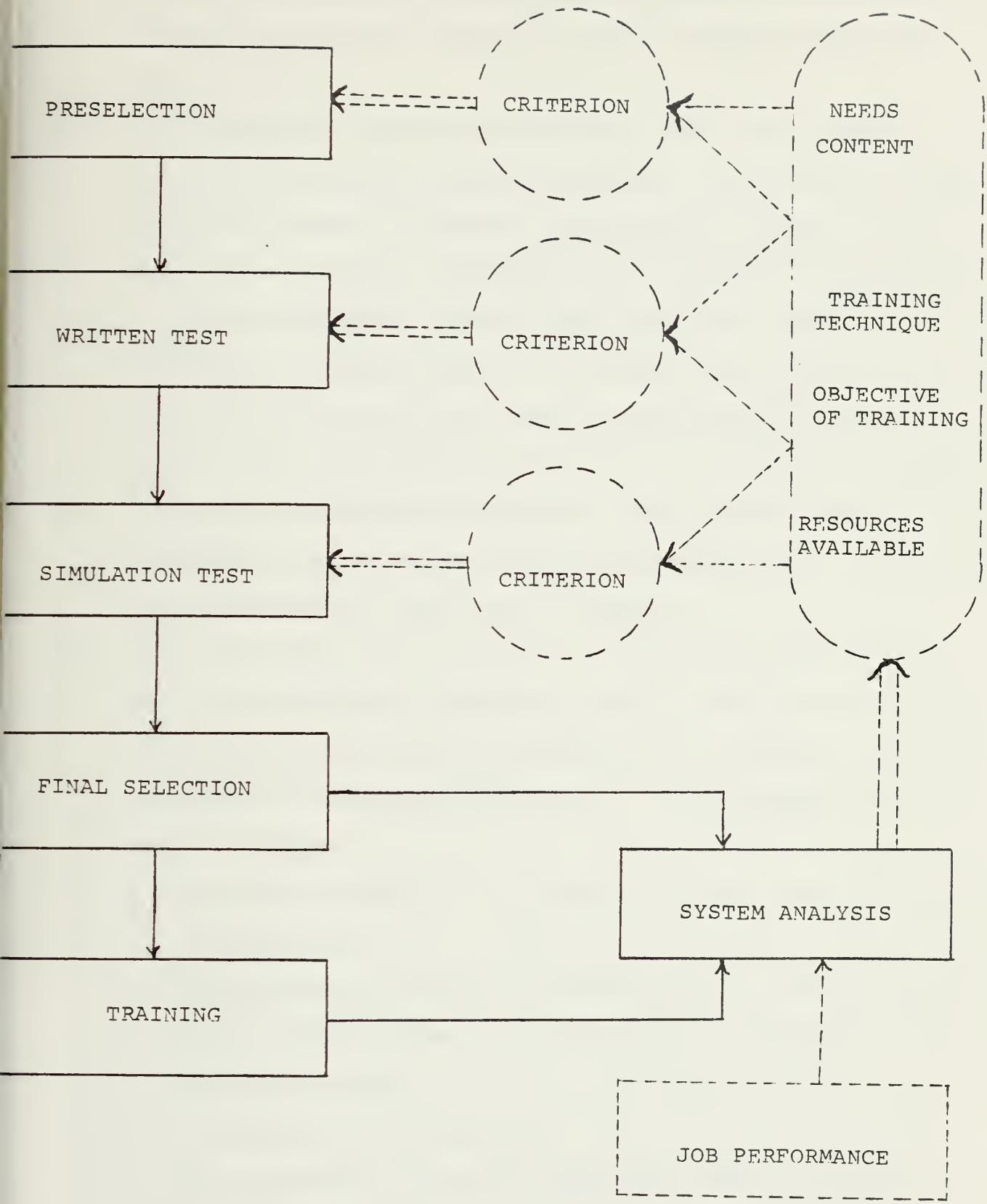

PRESELECTION
CRITERION
NEEDS
CONTENT
WRITTEN TEST
CRITERION
TRAINING
TECHNIQUE
OBJECTIVE
OF TRAINING
SIMULATION TEST
CRITERION
RESOURCES
AVAILABLE
FINAL SELECTION
SYSTEM ANALYSIS
TRAINING
JOB PERFORMANCE

FIGURE 4.

information about the course and the school, to assist the officers in deciding whether or not to submit an application.

(2) PRE-SELECTION: Once the applications have been received, they can be screened, and pre-selection can be accomplished by using a general criterion. By general criterion it is meant those criterion which have been determined in advance by training experts, and the data needed for criterion is available in archival data. For example, an overall evaluation of an officer can be made by examining his record and his duty experience by looking at his assignment history.

(3) EVALUATION OF SPECIFIC KNOWLEDGE: The next step could be to evaluate the selectee's specific knowledge on a written test prepared by a committee of experts.

(4) SIMULATION TEST: The officers who pass the written test would then be given a simulation test in which their skills and characteristics as a leadership and management instructor would be observed and measured. The simulation can be done as follows:

a. The subject matter to be taught is chosen and given to the selectee.

b. The selectee is given a limited amount of time to prepare a lecture from the information provided and his past experience.

c. A classroom can be set up.

d. The selectee is allowed a specified amount of time to teach the subject.

e. Two experts observe the lecture and evaluate the selectee.

f. The experts each rate the selectee.

(5) FINAL SELECTION: The combined average rating which will result from the simulation test should be sent to the selection board. The selection board members can be officers or civilians who will be chosen for their knowledge in the training field. For further validation of selectee capabilities in the selection process, it would be important to provide additional input for the selection board to use. This additional input could be either the officer's past fitness reports or a special form prepared by training experts, to measure the skills and characteristics desired for an instructor. This form could be a kind of questionnaire filled out by the candidate's commanding officer. If it is necessary, the selection board can give weight to the input criteria and select the required number of officers. Additional evaluation methods can be used by the board to make the final selection in a way the members of the board think is more relevant.

(6) TRAINING: The officer selected for leadership and management training instructor will be sent for training. The training of the candidate is not within the purpose of the general procedure shown above. But the important point is: The result of selection and training must be compared with each other and both of them must be compared with the actual

performance of instructors. The system should be analyzed consequently and should be able to tune for desired validity, of course. This is possible if it is flexible and enough open for necessary changes.

STEP V - Developing the Training Course

Based on the needs, the objective of training, and a technique of teaching, a course must be carefully designed. If this is not done, the whole program may fail. The systems approach is to develop each objective of the training in some detail -- enough to furnish detailed guidance for lesson plans. It would be wrong to oversimplify this part of the systems approach. If it is not specified in detail, it has the risk of overteaching and being irrelevant.

STEP VI - Providing the Training

The training will be given as the plan which is prepared in Step V, but in this step it can be adjusted to meet the difficulties that the trainees encounter, because it may happen that some points were not seen in the planning of the program.

STEP VII - Immediate On-The-Job Application and Feedback

This step refers to everything we do to ensure that after each session of the course, each officer applies what he has learned on the course in his own job. In this way, knowledge

acquired during the course will be turned into skill on the job. We also need some immediate feedback as to the ability of students to apply their skills and the receptivity of seniors in accepting these improvements.

STEP VIII - Formal Evaluation and Improving the Training

For the Navy, we must ensure that the graduated officers do a better job in their assignments. We based our objective of training upon the basis of these tasks. The content, and eventually the test, of the courses were based upon these objectives and we followed up to ensure that the officers applied their knowledge on the job. One might assume that everything should be all right. Should it? Sometimes people do not perform as predicted, and if this is the case we would like to know why. In this instance, we have to ask what results are obtained from this training even if the system was carefully designed. Is it possible to get the same, or better, results at a lower cost? By answering these questions, we will be able to plan improvements to the training objectives, training strategy, course material, and follow-up on the job. Therefore, a systematic evaluation of training is needed.

EVALUATION OF THE TRAINING

Ships, Departments, Divisions, in fact, any work group within the Navy, is a social system made up of mutually dependent parts. Descriptions of organization behavior, rules, regulations,

and orders tend to show group structures and interaction forces between them. Perhaps it would be better to see the Navy as a socio-technical military system, but in any way, the changes in one part of the system may create conflict reactions in the other parts of the system, or in minor scale application of the changes in skill, attitude and behavior of an officer who just finished the course may create conflict reaction in other officers. Therefore, sometimes especially in the leadership and management subjects, where the perception of the correct style of leadership and management depend on the beliefs, personality and values of the individuals, it will be dangerous to lose sight of the group as the focal point of leadership and management training, and to forget that leadership and management training might more effectively be done in the aggregate rather than individually. If it is done individually, it will be meaningless to try to measure whether Officer X was specifically developed by the course he attended, and without this measurement it is impossible to discover what the real impact of management training is on the performance of the officers.

Usually in any kind of organization, the evaluation of training is generally weak because managers think it is a waste of time to test something that it has convinced itself is good. But, in fact, the systematic evaluation of training is something other than a waste of time. All the efforts and money committed for design of a leadership and management program have the ultimate goal of bringing about the desired or needed behavior

changes in the areas of attitudes, skills, and knowledge. The purpose of training evaluation, therefore, should be to determine if such leadership and management desired changes did occur as a result of training. In a sense, it is necessary to establish an accountability system to compare the demonstrated benefit of training to the expense of effort, time, and money. In fact, we will be concerned with the quility of the evidence to demonstrate effectiveness of training.

To assess the quality of evidence, one of the most important problems is the criterion problem. Perhaps it is possible to think about criterion as an approximation of the Navy's goal, but any way, it should be settled on the basis of the training objectives which are stated before the training occurs, and a criterion measure should naturally be originated from the pre-specification of objectives. The criterion must have certain characteristics. In order of importance, these are: relevancy, reliability, freedom from bias, and acceptability to management.[40] Normally enough, attention is not put on criterion, which results in meaningless research. For example, one of the most popular, and perhaps least meaningful, criterion measures is participant questionnaires for rating the quality of training, course structure, course content, etc., which will almost produce positive results. Of course, it is easy to administer and simple to analyze, but unless the purpose, the pre-stated

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40 R. L. THORNDIKE, Personnel Selection, New York: Wiley, 1949.

objective of the training experience was to modify trainee attitudes toward the course, so what?[41]

Experimental Design

One of the most acceptable designs for evaluation of training is experimental design, and the minimally appropriate experimental design would necessarily suggest the use of pre-test and post-test along with controlled groups. One group will go through training, another from the same population would not. Both groups will be measured on the criterion variable before the training and after training, and then statistical analysis will show if any behavior change results from training. This subject has been discussed by many people, for example, Campbell and Dunnette, 1968;[42] Campbell, Dunnette, Lawler and Weick, 1970;[43] McGehel and Thayer, 1961.[44] As it was mentioned before, the minimally adequate design combines the pre-test and the post-test with the controlled group. A design without pre-test and post-test does not generate evidence of behavior change and a

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41 LEE, S.M., and DEAN, C., "University Management Programs, an Emperical Evaluation," Training and Development Journal, 1971, 25(1), pp. 32 - 37.

42 CAMPBELL, J. P., and M. B. DUNNETTE, "Effectiveness of T-Group Experiences in Managerial Training and Development," Psychological Bulletin, 1968, 70, pp. 73 - 104.

43 CAMPBELL, J.P., DUNNETTE, M.B., LAWLER, E.E., and WEICK, K.E., Managerial Behavior, Performance, and Effectiveness, New York: McGraw-Hill, 1970.

44 McGEHEE, W., and THAYER, P.W., Training in Business and Industry, New York: Wiley, 1961.

design without a control group does not generate evidence of the extent to which any measured behavior change might have been caused by the treatment (training).

A PROPOSED EXPERIMENTAL DESIGN FOR EVALUATION OF LEADERSHIP AND MANAGEMENT TRAINING IN THE IMPERIAL IRANIAN NAVY.

Evaluation for leadership and management training could be done by the simplest experimental method, which incorporates the pre-test and post-test along with the control group. The overall purpose of training is to change knowledge, attitude, and behavior of officers from level 0_1 to level 0_2, which is desired. In fact, it is the objective of leadership and management training, but pre-test and post-test of the training do not show the changes produced by training, because there are some other events which may cause the differences of knowledge, attitude, and behavior of trainees in the time length of training. Therefore, the use of control groups is needed, it means besides the officers who will be chosen for training, a comparable group of officers can be randomly chosen as the control group. In this way, general historical events that might have produced an $0_1 - 0_2$ difference, probably would also produce an $0_3 - 0_4$ difference (Figure 5). However, these differ-

Figure 5

	Pre-Tested	Post-Tested
Treatment	0_1	0_2
No Treatment	0_3	0_4

ences are not exactly the same because in reality all the officers in the experimental group can not be treated exactly the same, and similarly the officers in the control group will not be subjected to the same historical events with each other and with respect to the experimental group.[45] This is the weak point that experimental methods have, but in any use it must not be forgotten that it is the most acceptable method. Once changes caused by historical events are found by use of control groups, the changes of knowledge, behavior, and attitude caused by training can be determined.

One of the desired components of learning is it must be relatively permanent and behavioral change resulting. To find out that the components of learning are satisfied by training, another method is suggested here. This method is designed by Dr. Richard D. McGonical (U.S. Navy Commander, Professor of Naval Postgraduate School).

In this method, similar to previous ones, two groups will be randomly chosen as the experimental group (treatment group) and control group. Each group is further divided randomly into three subgroups, as shown in Figure 6. The first subgroup of control group will go through all three tests (pre-test, post-test-end of training, and post-test after one year). The second subgroup of both treatment and control groups will not do the pre-test, and the third subgroup of each group will be tested

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45 DONALD T. CAMPBELL, JULIAN C. STANLEY, Experimental and Quasi-Experimental Designs for Research, pp. 13 - 14.

	Pre-Test	Post-Test End of Training	Post-Test After One Year
TREATMENT GROUP	O_1	O_2	O_3
		O_4	O_5
			O_6
CONTROL GROUP	OC_1	OC_2	OC_3
		OC_4	OC_5
			OC_6

Figure 6

only after one year past training. Analyzing in this way the data collected from this method will show not only the effectiveness of training, but the validity of tests and randomness of selected groups and subgroups. In fact, there is a great deal of information which can be drawn from this research. For example, it is hoped that there is no considerable difference between O_1 and OC_1. If there is, it shows that the two groups are not comparable. The difference between O_2 and O_3 shows how permanent was learning, and in a sense it even shows how much the officers who were trained apply the concept that they learned in their actual assignment. The difference between O_6 and OC_6 shows the real overall effectiveness of training. As was mentioned before, a lot of useful information can be shown by this method.

In the systematic development of leadership and management training proposed, each step involved in system engineering, from need assessment to training evaluation, depends on the preceding steps being carefully taken. The desired outcome is well trained graduated junior officers able to do their assignments in the Navy, which they were trained for. Every step within the system which was considered more important, is covered in more detail; need assessment, training technique, instructor selection, training evaluation. Proper attention to each step should bring success. But still must be kept in mind, that absolute success in training depends on so many things that it's hard to single out any one.

IV. CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATION FOR FUTURE RESEARCH

Leadership and management training development is much more than a systematic set of plans, programs, and procedures. To design a very effective formal training does not guarantee the development of desired performance of officers toward the Navy's objective. The factors which would be responsible for the Navy's falling short of its objectives even if this leadership and management program is developed in the best way can be stated as:

(1) Inconsistency between the formal education and actual practices of leadership and management on the job, and non-consideration of O.D. as a dimension of learning process.

(2) If the education program is not in time with societal changes.

(3) If Top Management support is not clearly stated.

1. INCONSISTENCY BETWEEN THE FORMAL EDUCATION AND ACTUAL PRACTICES ON THE JOB, AND THE O.D. DIMENSION. The terms "education" and "training" are used interchangeably in this thesis. However, if we interpret education as an acquisition of knowledge usually connected with an educational center, and see it as a formalized and directed training; and if we interpret training to involve a change in knowledge, skill, attitude, or behavior through practice, then we can separate these two terms. But can we really have education without training or

training without education in the overall learning process? It is believed that the answer is "No." Everyone is acquiring new information, skills, habits, and attitudes daily. When left unorganized and undirected, the result will often be fruitless to the organization. The training must be based on a sound foundation educationally. On the other hand, a distinct formal leadership and management education is a technique to attain desired results. It is not an end in itself. The results may be obtained if formal education is followed by appropriate training, otherwise it cannot work, and it may even have negative results if the formal education and training are inconsistent. It is stated above that the desired result may be obtained if formal education is combined with actual practices and training on the job. Because today the question is bigger than, "Can we learn by education without training or training without education?" It is, "Is it possible to survive without fully considering human resources and accepting full responsibility?" It seems, today, that there is another dimension entered into the overall learning process; "organizational development." It means developing the most effective organization through the maximum utilization of the human resources available toward the achievement of the organization's goal.[46] Education and training remain interchangeable in the final analysis, but more than ever before, the organization's growth must be seen as a synthesis of the growth of its members.

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46 Definition frequently used in the U.S. Navy's Human Resource Management Support System.

It seems that the effectiveness of training and education depend on programs which can be carefully developed and followed up on the job. But it is not always so, because this is only an opportunity that will be provided by the organizations for their members. Then how much they will learn and what they will learn depends on how much they commit for learning, and their commitment will depend highly on the factors such as values, motivation, and personality.

Galileo said very well, "You can not teach a man anything you want; you can only help him to find it within himself." This is what MacGregor, Maslow, Herzberg, Gelerman, Myers, Blake, and a number of other people tried to make understood.

Rex F. Sheets says:[47]

(1) Training is an important and essential facet of modern organizations. However, we must consider training and development as an integral part of the person's working life, and not as a program with a beginning and an end.

(2) I believe this statement is as true today as it ever was. The idea here is commitment rather than just agreement.

(3) Training does accomplish these ends. However, the work itself must be organized to meet people's needs. The achievement of organizational require-

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47 "A Philosophy of Training Revisited," Training and Development Journal, June 1973, pp. 25-26.

ments will depend upon how we can help people satisfy the organization by satisfying themselves.

(4) Training is but one activity rather than the only program, and again, we must be aware of the need to integrate the organization's objectives with the growth needs of its people.

(5) Training is a management tool and, as any carpenter will tell you, there is no one tool that will build a complete house.

(6) All training should be developed and designed around, and with, the individual.

(7) Today, I believe the answer is constant feedback - evaluation and responsive action.

(8) Training must have a purpose for the individual and for the organization.

(9) Individuals are constantly in the state of learning - when they are not, they are in a state of dying (at least mentally).

(10) The whole process must be based on the combined needs of the individuals and group goals.

2. IF THE EDUCATION IS NOT IN TUNE WITH THE SOCIETAL CHANGES. The great Navy expansion in recent years and the continuous growth in the future is dictated by the needs of the country. The needs of the country for a greater armed forces, and therefore a greater Navy, have the main objective of main-

taining the national independent policy and creating more routes for welfare programs and economic growth. In the course of attaining these objectives, the country will confront the changes in the fields of social, economic, world politics, environment, technology, and demographics. All of these changes will affect the proper expansion of all or organizations in the country -- civilian or military. And more than ever there is the greatest demand for managerial talent, which can be attuned with the changes without losing sight of the objectives. Therefore, the leadership and management training, as it is stated before as a technique for development of managerial talent, must be able to respond to the effect of these changes within the Navy. If the training is not in tune with the changes, it would lose its effectiveness very soon.

The implication of this trend would be:

(a) Organizations will require continuously new structures and new decision-making processes to cope with these changes. Organizations within the future Navy will probably become increasingly complex in terms of size, financial resources, and manpower utilization.

(b) People will insist on a greater opportunity to become a meaningful part of the organization -- people will expect a chance to influence the position and role that they perform in the organization.

They will want more to be a part of the organization. Individuals will be increasingly concerned with their own self-actualization. Organizations will need to focus on this motivation by structuring jobs to allow a greater sense of self-fulfillment and job enrichment. These factors will strongly influence the leadership and management practices and the education and training which supports them.

(c) The expansion of knowledge and technology will continue. The rapid increase of knowledge and technological innovation makes it increasingly evident that education must be seen as a continuing life-long process. The means must be found for involving the whole man on the job, so that work and life become more meaningfully related. It will be recognized that money alone is an insufficient motivator. Work itself will be seen as a basic source of satisfaction. Organizational objectives, individual performance objectives, and training objectives should be integrated, and in training, process and content should be integrated.[48]

(d) Management Decentralization - The continuous expansion of the Navy will probably be accompanied with gradual management decentralization. Therefore, the future officers should be equipped with the

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48 GORDON L. LIPPITT, "Future Trends Affecting the Training and Development Profession," Training and Development Journal, December 1969, pp. 7-11.

broad managerial skills necessary for them to function effectively in the complexity of an expanded Navy.

(e) Changes in the Philosophy of Leadership and Management -- The total change in the various sectors of the country will lead to changes in the philosophy of leadership and management. There will be a tendency to see more participative styles of management. Confrontation, conflict and feedback will be perceived as an effective technique in striving toward the organization's goals.

3. TOP MANAGEMENT'S SUPPORT. There are always individuals in any organization who possess a natural resistance to change the style and the philosophy of leadership and management which has been exercised within the organization. Unless the top management is convinced with the importance of leadership and management development to the organization and to themselves, a similar resistance to the leadership and management training program is likely to develop among them. The only persons in the organization who are in positions to overcome the unfavorable attitudes are the top management. By showing an active interest and by giving a high level priority to the leadership and management training program, they can prevent a possible sabotage of the program before it has had a chance to succeed. If they are not convinced of the program's importance because of not being well prepared or

because of being pre-occupied by other vital projects, it would be better to forget a formal type of leadership and management training program and to develop another kind of training, such as on-the-job training, which could be more consistent with the Navy policy. Although a formal training program may look good on paper, any program launched without top management's support will be ineffective, and any result obtained, unsatisfactory.

CONCLUSION

The process and general models suggested for development of leadership and management training was based mainly on the consideration of proposing a model, which hopefully could cope with the changes and variable factors of culture. If the need assessment for research is continuously done by the way proposed, the system will be self-corrective for desired changes. In any case, the road to leadership and management development is neither easy, nor are the results always of a beneficial nature. And since the proposed development process is to be based on the needs of the Navy and the needs of its officers, it is impossible to estimate accurately what the costs will be for the Navy. But the leadership and management development training has become of such importance that even the more costly approaches appear to be a wise investment if satisfactory results are obtained. The following benefits can be obtained by a well developed leadership and management training: (1) Better individual performance;

(2) A broader overall leadership and management perspective; (3) More qualified officers at a time and age when maximum service can be rendered; (4) More delegation of decision making as a result of more qualified personnel; (5) Better communication; (6) Better morale; (7) Assistance to the recruiting program; (8) Assistance to selection of personnel; (9) Better understanding in the fields of management techniques and application, and practical application of leadership methods.

Leadership and management is a continuing activity and requires constant attention. It is true that the most effective way of providing for the growth and development of leadership and management skill of people in the organizations is through the conscious coaching of subordinates by their immediate superiors.[49] And it is true that the most effective way of learning what is involved in the performance of officers' functions is by doing. In other words, on-the-job training as a most universally accepted of all development tools, has many advantages, such as: First, as stated previously, the one best way to learn is to learn by doing. Second, development techniques can be applied on an individual basis according to individual need. But it has always the disadvantage that it is not any stronger than the person who has to administer it. Thus, its success depends upon the willingness and the ability of the superior officer to create a climate conducive to growth, and to coach and counsel the individual officer effectively.

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49 MACE, Executives, p. 108.

SUGGESTIONS FOR FUTURE RESEARCH

It is felt that to support this leadership and management development effort a special unit should be created to:

(a) Evaluate the effectiveness of the program.

(b) Monitor the "state of the art" in management education throughout the world, with particular emphasis upon military efforts.

(c) Actively seek out which organizational measurement tools would be most effective and appropriate in Iranian culture, developing new tools where necessary.

(d) Introduce and compare new organization development technologies in the system which will support operational readiness.

It is felt that systems are -- after all -- man-made. As such, they are subject to error and misunderstandings, however conscientious their authors.

Only with an active, searching reconnaissance of organization development can military systems be fine-tuned to meet the nation's most important needs. This author believes in his Navy's sincerity in seeking excellence and believes in its willingness to achieve excellence through the development of its human resources.

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